PROF. HOWE'S

SEVEN-HOUR SYSTEM

OF

RAMMAR.

Very Jovens. ANTICHIOS. ANTICLE. A PRONOUN.

NOUN.

BY PROF. D. P. HOWE, BOSTON, MASS.

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HOWE'S 7.50

Science of Language,

OR

SEVEN-HOUR SYSTEM

OF

GRAMMAR.

BY PROF. D. P. HOWE,

OF THE UNION COLLEGE, BOSTON, MASS.

MANCHESTER, N. H.;

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INTRODUCTION.

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This little work has been published at the urgent and repeated request of persons of all shades of education in every State of the Union, from Maine to Florida. It is designed to meet the requirements of a class of persons, immersed in business pursuits, entirely cut off from the advantages and influence of the School Room, and whose opportunities of an educational developement in this particular are at an end. With an experience of more than thirty years in the art of teaching, and a familiar acquaintance with the views of nearly a thousand authors, the writer is enabled to form an opinion of his own. He is satisfied that one of the greatest obstacles to the understanding of Grammar, is the scattered arrangement of thought, as exhibited in the Text Books of the present day. The writer has endeavored to remove this difficulty, by concentrating the scattered fragments of the Science, and bringing into measurable compass all that is practically useful for every-day life. His arrangement in this particular is entirely original. Every gem of thought, every idea of value, and every excellence in the Science worthy of attention, he has retained, while the profuse surplus nonsense, the literary brushwood, and the metaphysical, perplexing subtleties of the Text Books, which have ever obscured the Science, he has given to the winds. These may be interesting to the Professor of Logic, but to the great mass, who desire simple knowledge, they are absolutely valueless. What he has retained must be earefully read and digested, and if put into practice will constitute the scholar; what he has omitted is not worth the looking after. To the uneducated, yet ambitious person, this little work will prove a particular friend; for by it, independent of all previous knowledge or preparatory fitness, he can climb from the A. B. C. of the Science to its most practical hights; while the profound student already

famous for his attainments in search after knowledge, will find many bewildering and perplexing difficulties explained and simplified.

The author's discovery of the limited governing power of the Transitive Verbs and Prepositions, startling as it may be, has met with universal approval and recognition, from every intelligent, unprejudiced scholar who has heard it. With this fact before the mind, the education of years is diminished into as many minutes, and that which before was wildimmeasurable, and incomprehensible confusion, is now a perfect simplicity. Those seven words, as contrasted with the 30,000 Nouns and the 60 Pronouns of the text books, are worthy of being written in letters of lightning across the heavens for all Christendom to witness, as being the only words in the English language, under the control of the governing powers named, in which a grammatical error can be made. He might point with pleasure also to the simplicity of the suspended vibrating s, securing agreement between the Verb and the Noun, which has proved the delight of thousands; and to his exposition of the Subjunctive Mood and Prepositions, all of the ntmost value to the Platform Speaker, the Clergyman, or the Senator. Fifteen minutes' attention to any one of these will protect any intelligent person from erring once in a life time.

In conclusion, any one desiring to speak or write correctly, can accomplish what he wishes, by giving this little work one week's study; and he will, in this short time, attain to a greater perfection, a more thorough knowledge of the English language, than he could secure by many tedious years of study, from the common text books of the country. Should his efforts to simplify this most important of all branches of Science, meet to some extent the literary necessities of the adult population of America, and prove, as intended, the right-hand friend of the Sclf-Student, the writer's most ardent wishes will have been accomplished.

BOSTON, MASS., March, 1870.

GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR is the art of expressing our thoughts correctly, in speaking or writing.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

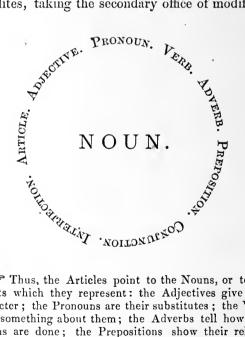
The English Language is divided into nine Parts of Speech: Article, Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction and Interjection.

By these nine divisions, science has spanned our language, as a magnificent river is spanned by a bridge, and its rippling waters flow through the several arches.

THE NOUN

IS THE PRINCIPAL PART OF SPEECH.

Of the nine parts of speech, the Noun is the principal one. Like the sun in the Solar System, it takes the position of centre, round which the remaining eight parts of speech revolve as mere satellites, taking the secondary office of modifiers:



Thus, the Articles point to the Nouns, or to the objects which they represent: the Adjectives give them character; the Pronouns are their substitutes; the Verbs state something about them; the Adverbs tell how their actions are done; the Prepositions show their relative position; the Conjunctions couple them together, and the Interjections express their emotion.

ARTICLES.

ARTICLES limit nouns; or, an Article is a word that points out nouns and limits them; as, A star; an organ; the sun.

There are two Articles, A and The, and these may be considered in their use, as the two Index Fingers of the English language. A, derived from ane (one) of the Anglo Saxon, means one, and is therefore necessarily used in the singular number; as, A mountain: a flower; a city.

Anterior to the Conquest, ane was in universal use; as, ane man; ane town; ane apple; ane orchard. At a later day ane lost the final e, and An (an-e) like to its predecessor, took the full circle of the Nouns of the language, irrespective of Vowel or Consonant sounds; as, An boy; an man; an apple; an ornament. Finally, as time rolled on, the n was removed, and A stands to-day, the modern Indefinite Article of the language.

For the sake of euphony the removed n is sometimes recalled to coalesce with A, as, An apple; an instrument.

This necessity produced the following simple rule, assented to by all grammarians: Vowel sounds require An before them: Consonant sounds, A.

VOWEL SOUNDS.

An army. An enemy.

An instrument.

. An officer.

An umbrella.

Words commencing with a silent h give a vowel sound; | it is found in unity is made as, Honest, honorable; Those by y or yu; hence as y is

CONSONANT SOUNDS.

A butterfly.

A casket.

A delicacy. A foreigner,

A giant, &c.

The sharp sound of u as

having the h sounded, when a consonant whenever it the accent is on the second sullable, give only an imperfect consonant sound, and hence, by general consent, both are placed among the words having vowel sounds: as.

An honest man. An hotél incident.

An Havána letter. An heróic action.

An heréditary disease.

begins a word or syllable. words having this sound are placed by universal consent and the best authority, among those words requiring the Article A; as.-

> A unit. A euphony. A ewer. A useful boy.

A university.

THE is called the Definite Article because it defines and points out definitely; as, The Creation, the Flood and the Crucifixion, are the three great facts of biblical history.

> The great, the gay, shall they partake, The heaven that thou alone can'st make?

Unlike the Indefinite Article A, the Definite Article The, undergoes no grammatical change, but may be used indiscriminately before Nouns in the singular number, and those in the plural number, and before vowel sounds, as well as consonant sounds; as, The mountain, or, the mountains; the army, or, the navy.

Attention to the preceding arrangements, and the practice of them in speaking or writing, will, so far as the Articles go, constitute the grammarian; but to follow this or any other part of speech into every sentence, and show its use and application to it, would not be any more a sensible act, than attempting to fix beforehand the undulations of the eagle's wing in its flight through the heavens, or to trace the movements of a ship, in all its angular and meandering courses through the trackless ocean. All who try it fail; and yet it is this unnecessary chasing of words through the language, that fills to safiety the text books of the present day, and makes the science, which might otherwise appear interesting and attractive, a complete metaphysical puzzle, and a hateful absurdity to the student.

NOUNS. 9

NOUNS.

Nouns are names; or, a Noun is the name of any person, place, object, or idea; as, William, London, garden, happiness. This, or any other definition, gives but a feeble idea of this part of speech; and as the Noun forms the base upon which the whole superstructure of the English language is beautifully and permanently erected, we are compelled to view it in all its interesting features, and follow it to its utmost limits.

As it is entirely impossible to make use of objects themselves in speaking and writing, we use the names. The necessity of this is obvious; for no person can place a continent or village upon his tongue, neither can he with a pen dip up the ocean or even a city reservoir for the accommodation of his correspondents. He can, however, speak the name, continent or village, and with similar ease write the name, ocean or reservoir, with his pen. Hence the name is all the speaker or writer has to do with, which accounts for the universal application of the Noun.

To grasp the Noun in its immense variety, we must give our imagination the greatest freeness of action, and trace, so far as we are able, the works of creation through limitless space. Remembering, that there is nothing in nature so large or so diminutive, so distant or so near, so holy or so impure, that will not come under the immediate control of the tongue or pen, and form a subject of conversation or correspondence.

If we glance at the heavens, we find the whole firmament full of sparkling orbs, scattered like glittering gold-dust from horizon to horizon. We find the sun, the moon, the planets, and the stars attracting our attention, and instinctively calling our aspirations to the great Author of creation. In this spirit Addison penned the following inimitable lines, which may be grammatically, as well as morally, considered:

The spacious firmament on high, with all the blue ethereal sky; And spangled heavens, a shining frame. Their great Original proclaim. The unwearied sun from day to day, Doth his Creator's power display; And publishes to every land, The work of an Almighty hand.

Soon as the evening shades prevail,
The moon takes up the wondrous tale;
And nightly to the listening earth,
Repeats the story of her birth;
While all the stars that round her burn,
And all the planets in their turn,
Confirm the tidings as they roll,
And spread the truth from pole to pole.

What though in solemn silence all, Move round this dark terrestrial ball; What though no real voice nor sound, Amid those radiant orbs be found; In Reason's car they all rejoice, And utter forth a glorious voice, Forever singing as they shine, "The Hand that made us is divine."

If we come closer to this world, and deal with matters of more local interest, we can find innumerable subjects of conversation and correspondence: The lightning flash, the thunder peal, the storm of snow, the shower of rain, the gentle breeze, the gale of wind, the hail-drop or the snowflake. Besides these, we can speak of continents and islands, oceans and seas, mountains and valleys, rivers and streams, forests and groves, fields and gardens, flowers and vegetables, cities and villages, empires and kingdoms, men and women, animals and birds, fishes and reptiles, insects and worms. In fact, we can speak and write of every thought and act of every member of the human race, and of all higher intelligences. We can speak and write of every thing inhabiting the land, or living in the waters; of every thing found floating on the ocean, or buried in its depths; of every thing growing from the soil, or resting on its bosom; of every thing ornamenting our persons, or decorating our houses; of every thing poised in the air, or flashing through the heavens, created by Deity, or invented by man; existing anywhere from the centre of the universe to its remotest verge. The name of any thing and every thing is a Noun.

COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS.

Nouns are necessarily divided into Common and Proper.

A COMMON Noun is a word that is common to all its race or class, and may be used to any one, without restriction or change; as, man, city, ocean, sea, river, mountain, ship. Such words have no claim to capital letters, and they never should have them within the body of a sentence, no matter how great the temptation may be to act otherwise.

**Common," as used in such phrases as Common Nouns, Common Gender, may be secured by calling to mind the

Central Park of New York, or the Boston Common. Within these beautiful inclosures the rich and poor can meet together, the millionaire and the beggar, the happy and the sad, the healthy and the invalid, the preacher and the politician, the stranger and the citizen. Ingress and egress without the slightest restriction are allowed; the inclosures are common to all. Hence the name given to the latter, the Boston "Common." This idea does not apply to individual properties; for it is well known that walls, palings, gates and locks, prevent their common use.

A PROPER NOUN is the individual name of one of any race or class; as, John, Boston, Atlantic, Mediterranean, Hudson, Andes, Great Western. These, and all other names individualizing any one from its fellows, are entitled to the capital letters, and must have them under every circumstance.

PERSON, GENDER, NUMBER, CASE.

Nouns are said to be varied by Person, Gender, Number, and Case.

PERSON.

Person is that relation existing between the speaker, the audience, and the subject of discourse, or correspondence.

Thus, the speaker or writer, while speaking or writing, is First Person, and then and then only can make use of such words as I, me, we, us. The individual or audience, at the time of being addressed, is Second Person, and in such circumstances and in those only, the word

Thou, thee, ye or you is used. The person or persons, subject or subjects, spoken of, are in the Third Person, and in such cases the words, he, him, she, her, they, them, and it, are appropriate. Thus it may be perceived at once, that the only words which distinguish the different Persons, are Pronouns. But as Nouns are merely names, which can neither speak nor be spoken to, but only used in speaking of, it follows that THEY ARE ALWAYS IN THE THIRD PERSON, and can never, under any circumstance, be in the First or Second Person.

This to some will be new doctrine, but it cannot be disproved. The "apposition" of the Noun with the Pronoun was nothing more than a convenient and deceptive invention, accepted by students in their ignorance, causing them much confusion and anxiety, without resulting in any benefit. I may confidently appeal to the best grammatical scholar in Christendom to point out to me one solitary instance in the English language, where an error can be created in speaking or writing, by recognizing and calling any Noun, a Noun in the Third Person, and he cannot do it. Where Nouns are supposed to be in the First or Second Person, it is the Pronoun, either expressed or understood, that is the subject of the Verb, and the Noun might as well be in parenthesis; as, I (Paul) have written it. If in this case the Noun Paul governed the Verb, or was the subject of it, the sentence would read thus: I. Paul. has written it, making grammatical nonsense.

GENDER.

Gender has the same relation to Nouns that sex has to individuals. Nouns have four Genders: Masculine, Feminine, Common, and Neuter. There are only two Sexes: Male and Female.

The MASCULINE GENDER denotes the Male Sex; as, Man, lion.

The Feminine Gender denotes the Female Sex; as, Woman, lioness.

The COMMON GENDER denotes either Sex, and is expressed by a word common to both; as, Child, parent, ancestor.

The NEUTER GENDER denotes what is of neither Sex; as, House, garden, piano.

Fit is seldom that an error is made in the use of the Gender. Few persons would say, John Henderson was bridesmaid, or Victoria is king of England.

NUMBER.

Number is the distinction of one from more. There are two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural. The Singular denotes one; as, Star, tree, flower. The Plural denotes more than one; as, Stars, trees, flowers.

The Plural is generally formed, as seen in the preceding examples, by adding s to the Singular. Nouns ending in ss, sh, ch, x, o, necessarily require es; as, Glasses, brushes, churches, foxes, heroes.

Nouns ending in y, when a consonant precedes it, have y changed into ies; as, Lady, ladies; family, families. Nouns ending in y when a vowel precedes it retain the y; as, Attorney, attorneys; chimney, chimneys.

Remember particularly, that whether the plural ends in s, an es, or an ies, the last sound upon the ear is that of "s"; hence euphony demands that the plural Verb should at all times reject the additional s; as, Flowers grow, not grows; stars twinkle, not twinkles.

- SINGULAR Nouns coupled with and form a plural, and become an equivalent to the plural ending in s, requiring the same Verb; as, John and Robert—an equivalent to boys—play; Mary and Lucy—an equivalent to girls—laugh.
- Man, men; woman, women; child, children; foot, feet; ox, oxen; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; mouse, mice; penny, pence.
- Some Nouns are the same in both numbers; as, Sheep, deer, swine, hose, means, news, species, corps, apparatus.
- Some Nouns have no Singular; as, Embers, oats, tongs, scissors, vespers, ashes, clothes. Some have no Plural; as, Gold, mud, business, molasses, hay, flax, dust, pride, ambition.
- In pluralizing proper names, general usage sustains, the two Miss Edmonsons, the three Miss Crosbys; pedantic accuracy calls for, the two Misses Edmondson, the three Misses Crosby—the former is certainly the more preferable arrangement.

CASE.

Case is the relation one Noun bears to another, or to a Verb, or Preposition. There are three Cases: the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, and *Objective*.

The Nominative simply names the principal actor, or agent, in the sentence; as, Milton wrote Paradise Lost; Wars impoverish a nation.

The Possessive implies possession; as, Smith's Astrono-

my; Napoleon's army.

The Objective denotes the object of a Verb or Preposition; as, Cicero expelled Catiline; The merchant lives within his income.

- The Nominative Case and the Objective are always alike in spelling and pronunciation; as, God created the universe; Saints worship God.
- In forming the Possessive Case, when the plural ends in s, the apostrophe only is added; as, The *Ladies*' Fair; the *Mechanics*' Institute.
- Singular Nouns ending in s must not be confused with those in the plural; hence instead of saying Burns' Poems, we should say Burns's Poems.
- When property is owned in common the *last term* only receives the Possessive sign; as, Hogg, Brown and Taylor's store.
- When individual ownership is expressed, each receives the sign; as, Parker's and Wilson's farm were sold yesterday. Note, we don't say farms, because one farm of each is meant; for if the Noun be made plural where it is expressed, it will also be plural where it is implied. Parker's and Wilson's farms would imply two or more of each; but Parker's and Wilson's farm only imply one belonging to each person. Perhaps, Parker's farm and Wilson's were sold yesterday, is a better arrangement for the singular: it is certainly more explicit.
- In forming the Possessive Case of Nouns that are the same in both numbers, the apostrophe is placed before the s in the singular number, and after it in the plural; as, Singular, Deer's; Plural, Deers'.
- Of is sometimes used to express the Possessive, and in harsh sentences is certainly preferable to the 's; as, The length of the day; The wisdom of Socrates. These phrases are certainly more elegant than, The day's length, or, Socrates's wisdom.
- The Preposition of, used to express the Possessive, leads occasionally to what is termed by some grammarians "Double Possessives;" as, This is a horse of Kelley's, namely, one of Kelley's horses; A speech of President Grant's, namely, one of President Grant's

speeches. These Double Possessives are only allowable when the Noun is distributive, or one of many, as in the preceding examples.

NOMINATIVE, POSSESSIVE, OBJECTIVE.

The lightnings flash along the sky,
The thunder bursts and rolls on high;
Jehovah's voice methinks I hear
Amid the storm,
As riding on the clouds of even,
He spreads his glory o'er the heaven.

ADJECTIVES.

Adjectives imply character; or, an Adjective is a word added to a Noun, to give character to those objects which the Nouns represent; as, An interesting child; a large city; a happy home; a pure thought.

Every person and object in nature, from Deity on his throne, to the little pearly dew-drop trembling on the flower petal, possesses character, and the word that defines the character is an Adjective:—

The lofty hill, the humble lawn, With countless beauties shine; The silent grove, the solemn shade, Proclaim thy power divine.

COMPARISON.

Comparison is called into use when rivalry in character exists. There are three Degrees of Comparison:—the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative. The Positive expresses the ordinary character without comparison with any other; as, Miss Ellis is a tall lady; Boston is a large city. The Comparative is used when two characters are in rivalry with each other; as, Miss Harding is taller than Miss Ellis; New York is a larger city than Boston. The Superlative is used in the comparison of three objects, or more, and expresses the highest or lowest extreme of character; as, Miss F. is the tallest lady in Boston; Rhode Island is the smallest State in the Union.

It will be seen from the preceding examples, that the Comparative of Adjectives is formed by adding er to the Positive; and the Superlative by adding est; as Tall, taller, tallest, small, smaller, smallest. Adjectives of one syllable should ever be compared in this way.

Adjectives of three syllables, and more than three, would offend the ear if compared by er and est; as Courte-ous, courteouser, courteousest; Ri-dic-u-lous, ridiculouser, ridiculousest. Hence such Adjectives must be compared by more and most; as Courteous, more courteous, most courteous; Ridiculous, more ridiculous, most ridiculous.

Adjectives of two syllables, are like the Channel Islands in the English Sea, with France on one side, and England on the other; the natives are found speaking both French and English. So it is with the two-syllable Adjectives, having on one side, those of one syllable compared by er and est, and on the other side, those

of three syllables compared by more and most, making the two-syllable Adjectives susceptible of either form; as, Po-lite, politer, politest; or, Polite, more polite, most polite. In these, the speaker or writer can exercise his own judgment and taste; for what he prefers is law.

- While the two-syllable Adjectives are susceptible of either form of comparison, they do not admit of both at one time; as, The most politest lady; The most unkindest cut of all. These phrases would be correct if written, The politest lady, the unkindest cut of all; or, The most polite lady, the most unkind cut of all. No Adjective can stand the double dose of comparison at once.
- There is no grammatical error committed in using several Adjectives before one Noun; as, Matilda is a tall, handsome, intelligent young lady; R. Thompson, Esq., is an able, practical, and experienced lawyer.
- When two or more Adjectives requiring different forms of comparison are placed before a Noun, the two forms may be retained; as, It is the neatest and most eligible situation in the city; A sweeter or more amiable lady I have never seen. Good usage suggests an other form, shorter it is true, but not quite so expressive; namely, by putting the grammatical sign of comparison before both; as, He is the most rich and enterprising man in the city; I received the most shrewd and practical suggestions from my Attorney. In these cases the smaller Adjective is always placed before the larger ones.
- When two persons or objects are compared, and two only, it is better to use the Comparative Degree, than the Superlative; as, James is taller than John, or the taller of the two—not the tallest; Mr. M. is more industrious than Mr. B., or the more industrious of the two—not the most industrious.
- There is no word in our language superlative in itself, till it is made so by undergoing the ordinary process of comparison. A list of such words as some grammarians consider unsusceptible of comparison is made out in most grammars, but this is waste labor; for the

best authors have swept those lists clean, and compared every word in them. Addison says, The eyes are the most perfect of our senses. Goldsmith says, And love is but an emptier name. The phrases, Most accurate, most sublime, most supreme, most conclusive, most permanent, &c., are all correct.

The Numeral Adjectives, One, two, three, &c., First, second, third, &c., Single, double, &c., as well as the Adjectives, This, that, these, those, same, former, latter; each, every, either, neither; any, one, both, some, all, other, another, such, have no comparison. The latter are called "Pronominal Adjectives," because they are sometimes used as Pronouns; as, I paid a dollar for this. I would call them Adjectives when they are Adjectives, and Pronouns when they are Pronouns, and discourage the use of those compound names altogether.

The following Adjectives are outlaws to rule, and will not be compared by the ordinary process of comparison; they have an arbitrary form of their own, and Princes and Presidents are powerless to alter it. Good, bad, many, much, and little will likely never submit to be compared regularly; as, Good, gooder, goodest; Bad, badder, baddest: much, mucher, muchest. Their own form they will take perhaps forever; as, Good, better, best; Bad, worse, worst; Much, more, most. The word "lesser," too, which according to Dr. Johnson is a barbarous corruption of less, is yet in frequent use by our most tasteful authors:--"It is the glowing style of a man who is negligent of lesser graces."-Blair. "These hills seem things of lesser dignity."-Byron. This word brought Webster to his knees much against his will: he says, "It is a corruption; but it is too well established to be discarded. Authors always write the Lesser Asia."

A Noun frequently becomes an Adjective, when it is used to give character; as, A gold coin, a silver cup, the morning star. Adjectives of this kind are seldom compared:

Stone walls do not a prison make, Nor iron bars a cage; Minds innocent and quiet take, That for a hermitage.

A pebble in the streamlet scant,
Has changed the course of many a river;
A dew drop on the baby plant,
Has warped the giant oak for ever.

PRONOUNS.

Pronouns are substitutes; or, a Pronoun is a word that is used as a *substitute for a Noun*; as, Victoria is a happy queen: *she* reigns in the hearts of *her* people.

Were there no Pronouns, our language would be burdened by the repetition of Nouns, as in the following sentence: When Washington had secured the independence of the United States, Washington retired to Washington's home, and gave Washington's attention to Washington's private business. Supply the Pronouns after the first Washington, and the sentence will read correctly: When Washington had secured the independence of the United States, he retired to his home, and gave his attention to his private business.

Place a basket of fruit before a number of young friends, and the Pronouns will not be long in oblivion. Instead of the Noun apple, or apples, one says, I'll take this; an other that; a third, I prefer these; a fourth, those; a fifth, I want none; a sixth, I'll take an other; seventh, I don't care about any; eighth, here are two nice ones, I would like to have both; ninth, I cannot eat such; tenth, with a larger desire than any of his predecessors, I want all; eleventh, What has become of the apples? twelfth, They are all gone! Who has eaten them? These are legitimate Pronouns as used here; but if the Noun apple or apples were used, as, this apple, those apples, this and those would become Adjectives.

Pronouns are divided into Personal, Relative, Demonstrative, and Distributive.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS are used instead of the names of persons, hence their name personal. They are; I, thou, he, she, it, in the singular; and We, you, they, in the plural. In the order of cases they are: I, mine, me; We, ours, us. Thou, thine, thee; You, yours, you. He, his, him; They, theirs, them. She, hers, her; They, theirs, them. It, its, it; They, theirs, them.

The Pronoun thou is never used at the present day, unless in addressing Deity, or amongst the Society of Friends. The Pronoun you, though once plural, is now used instead of thou, and has a singular signification when applied to an individual. It must always, however, retain its natural associations, and be accompanied with a plural Verb; as, You are, you were, you have. Webster's doctrine of a singular Verb accompanying it when used instead of thou, is very ridiculous; for no ear could be tortured with such phrases as, You is, you am, you art, you hast, or you was.

We in the plural is often used instead of I in the singular, especially by editors, authors, clergymen, reviewers, and monarchs. It lessens the individuality in the same manner as the Pronoun you does; and like you, it must be followed with its plural Verb under every circumstance.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS are words which relate to Nouns or phrases going before them. They are Who, which, and that. Who is applied to persons, or the higher intelligences generally; as, God who created the universe is of infinite power; The man who possesses wealth should be generous; The lady who wrote that poem possesses much sweetness of disposition; The boy who honors his parents will be respected; The girl who was crowned "queen" by her classmates, was delighted with the honor.

Which is applied to animals and inanimate objects; as, The elephant which escaped from his keeper has been captured; The rose which she plucked has faded. Which is sometimes elegantly omitted:

I hear a voice—thou canst not hear, Which says thou must not stay; I see a hand—thou canst not see, Which beckons me away.

- THAT is used when it would be improper to use either who or which, or when the repetition of either becomes offensive; as, The Sailor and boat that passed the Light House were never heard from; (Here which would be wrong because sailor requires who; and who would be wrong because boat requires which: the difficulty is got over by using that.) It was Columbus that discovered America; The watch that I found I returned to its owner.
- The Noun or phrase to which the relative belongs, is called the Antecedent, and the Relative is dependent upon it for its Person, Gender, and Number. In the last example above, "that" is in the third Person, neuter Gender, and singular Number, because "Watch," its antecedent, is in the third Person, neuter Gender, singular Number.
- The COMPOUND RELATIVES include both the Antecedent and the Relative; as, Whoever said so spoke truly; that is, The man who said so spoke truly. The

Compound Relatives are, Whoever, whosoever, whomsoever; whichever, whichsoever; what, whatever, and whatsoever.

When the relative has lost its antecedent, it finds it immediately, by changing itself into an Interrogative; as Who wrote the Illiad, and was called the Prince of Poets? Answer: Homer. In this way some of the Relatives become what grammarians call "Interrogative Pronouns."

Who and Which, as Relatives and as Interrogatives, are thus declined in the order of their cases: Singular and Plural, Who, whose, whom; Which, whose, which. What has no variation. That has whose in the Possessive, but has no objective. Whoever and whosoever are declined like who.

Whose, as the true Possessive of which, is sanctioned by the best classical authority: "A triangle, one of whose sides is perpendicular to another."—Brougham; "Cedar groves whose gigantic branches threw a refreshing coolness over the verdure."—Prescott.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS specify particularly what objects or words are meant. The Demonstratives are, This, that, these, those, former, and latter.

When two objects that may be seen are contrasted, this refers to the one near the speaker, and that to the one further away; as, This—referring to the object near—cost four dollars; that cost two.

When words passing from the lips are contrasted, this refers to the one last spoken, and that to the first, because it is further away; as, The rose and lily are emblematical; this of purity, that of honesty.

Self-love, the spring of motion guides the soul; Reason's comparing balance rules the whole: Man but for this, no motion could attend, And but for that, were active to no end.

When objects in the plural, that may be seen, are contrasted, these refers to the ones near the speaker, and

those to the ones further away; as, These—flowers near at hand—emit delicious perfume, those are faded and worthless.

When words in the plural are contrasted, these refers to the one last spoken, and those to the first; as, It is better to fall among vultures than flatterers; those devour the dead only, these the living.

Farewell my friends! Farewell my foes!

My peace with these, my love to those.—Burns.

Former and latter have a similar use; as, Body and soul must part; the latter wings its way to its Almighty source, the former drops into the dark and silent grave.

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS are those which refer to a number of objects taken separately. They are Each, every, either, neither. Distributive Pronouns are always used in the Singular Number and in the Third Person, even when they relate to the persons speaking, the persons addressed, as well as to the persons spoken of; as, Each of us had more than he wanted; Each of you had more than he wanted; Each of them had more than he wanted.

Every was once in good standing as a Pronoun, but as it cannot be now used without its Noun it is a mere Adjective. We can say, each received a prize; but we cannot say, every received a prize: every requires its Noun after it to make sense; as, Every student received a prize for his good behavior; Every tempest and every dew-drop has its mission;

Every tongue and every eye Does homage to the passer-by.

Each denotes two or more objects; Every denotes more than two; Either and Neither refer to two only and never more. If a greater number than two be named, where it might appear that Either or Neither could be used, adopt the terms any one, or not one as the case may

be; as, Three or more houses were searched for stolen property, and none was found in any one of them; Three or more prisoners were tried yesterday, and not one of them was found guilty.

As there is no Pronoun of the COMMON GENDER in the English language, speakers and writers are continually under the necessity of using such terms as, he or she, his or hers, him or her, in speaking or writing of a mixed company, to avoid using the plural pronoun they, their, theirs, or them, which would be quite ungrammatical in this connection. Nothing is more offensive to an educated ear than to hear a person say, Every one should dress according to their own taste and fancy; it should be, "according to his or her own taste and fancy."

Either and Neither, as Pronouns, must be carefully distinguished from Either and Neither as Adjectives, or Conjunctions. When Pronouns, they are used instead of, not along with, their Nouns; as, Either of the roads is good; Neither of the offices is filled. When Adjectives, they are used with their Nouns; as, You can take either road you please; Neither office will suit the candidate. When Conjunctions, they may connect not only two Nouns, but several; as, I am satisfied that either John, or William, or Edward, or Thomas, broke the looking-glass; For I am persuaded that neither death, nor life, nor angels, nor principalities, nor things present, nor things to come, nor hight, nor depth, nor any other creature shall be able to separate us from the love of God.

$V \to R \to S$.

Verbs imply action; or, a Verb is a word that expresses something of its Noun or nominative; as, Time *flies*, stars *twinkle*; monarchs *rule*, the sun *shines*. Verbs are of three kinds: Transitive, Passive, and Neuter.

Transitive Verbs express action passing over from an actor to an object; as, Antony beheaded Cicero; Milton wrote Paradise Lost.

The action represented by the Transitive Verb passes like the arrow from the bow of the archer to its victim beyond, and strikes with unerring certainty. Should the arrow droop in its flight and fail to strike, no Transitive Verb in that particular instance existed.

While every school and college in America and Great Britain teaches that the Transitive Verbs of our language govern Thirty thousand Nouns and sixty Pronouns; and every teacher and student believes that in every word lies a possible error, it should form an interesting fact in the history of Grammar, to learn that the Transitive Verbs govern or control only SEVEN WORDS altogether: Me, thee, him, her, us, them, and whom. When these words are correctly used in speaking and

writing, there is not an other word in the English language in which an error can take place, under the influence of the Transitive Verbs for ever!

To insure correctness in this particular, the necessary effort will not occupy more than five or ten minutes labor, while as many years fail to establish or secure equal certainty, as the Science is now taught throughout the world. All that has to be done is to make use of any Transitive Verb required in connection with those seven words named, and familiarize the tongue with them; as,

The President invited me.
The President invited thee.
The President invited him.
The President invited her.
The President invited us.
The President invited them.
The President invited whom.

Passive Verbs are those which represent the receiving or suffering of the action of an other; as, Cicero was beheaded by Antony; Moscow was taken by Napoleon.

In the formation of Passive Verbs, they are found to be the mere reverse of the Transitive; thus, Brutus stabbed Cæsar is Transitive; and Cæsar was stabbed by Brutus, is Passive.

NEUTER VERBS, very appropriately called by some grammarians Intransitive, represent a state of existence, or action, confined to the actor; as, Flowers grow; The sentinel sleeps; The river Jordan flows into the Dead Sea. The Neuter Verb Be, or some part of it, is at all times used as an auxilliary in the formation of the Passive; as, The criminal will be pardoned; The oak was shattered by lightning; The cities were destroyed by an earthquake.

MOOD or Mode means manner; and, grammatically, shows the manner in which the Verb states something of its Nominative. Verbs have four Moods: The *Indicative*, Potential, Subjunctive, and Imperative.

The Indicative asserts an actual occurrence, or living truth; as, Prince Arthur visited the United States; Galileo invented the telescope;

That very law that moulds a tear,
And bids it trickle from its source;
That law preserves the earth a sphere,
And guides the planets in their course.

The facts asserted by the Indicative may have reference to any time, past, present, or future; as, Nero burned Rome; Victoria reigns in England; Henry W. Beecher will preach in Washington next Sunday.

The Indicative asks questions also; as, Did Ncroburn Rome? Does Victoria reign in England? Will Henry W. Beecher preach in Washington next Sunday?

The Potential implies the power to do, or asserts the mere possibility of an action; as, The President can pardon political prisoners; Charles Dickens may repeat his visit to America.

Potential means the having power or will; As, If you would improve, you should be still.—Tobitt.

The Potential, like the Indicative, asks questions; and these are the only Moods which can be changed into Interrogatives:

Can storied urn or animated bust,
Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath?
Can Honor's voice provoke the silent dust,
Or flattery soothe the dull, cold ear of death?

The Subjunctive represents an action depending on a future uncertainty; as, If thy brother trespass against thee, rebuke him; and, if he repent, forgive him.

Fit is the future uncertainty in the mind of the speaker, and not the Conjunction "If," that calls particularly for the Subjunctive Mood: as, If it rain to-morrow I cannot go to Charlestown. If is frequently used in the Indicative, expressing an admitted fact; as, If he has money he keeps it.

Grammarians have ever found the Subjunctive Mood a puzzle and a source of much annoyance; hence

the desire so visibly manifested to bring it into disuse. To me it is one of the special beauties of the English language, giving the speaker the power of expressing all future uncertainties, in distinct and direct contrast with the certainties of the Indicative. The following rule will, I hope, be sufficiently explicit, to make it practically useful under every circumstance:—Drop the final s from the Present Indicative:—

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

He pays.	If he pay.
He pardons.	If he pardon.
He repents.	If he repent.
He refuses.	If he refuse.
He persecutes.	If he persecute.

To this simple rule there are only two exceptions in the language, namely the two radical verbs Have and Be. When these are added, all will be complete:—Indic. He is; Sub. If he be. Indic. He has; Sub. If he have. Indic. He was; Sub. If he were, or, were he.

The distinctive characteristic of the Subjunctive Mood is, that it never changes its form like the Indicative. As soon as it is found for one person, it is had for every person, whether in the Singular Number or in the Plural, for ever:—

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

I work.	We work.	If I work.	If we work.
Thou workest.	You work.	If thou work.	If you work.
He works.	They work.	If he work.	If they work.
l pardon.	We pardon.	If I pardon.	If we pardon.
Thou pardonest.	You pardon.	If thou pardon.	If you pardon.
He pardons.	They pardon.	If he pardon.	If they pardor
I am.	We are.	If I be.	If we be.
Thou art.	You are.	If thou be.	If you be.
He is.	They are.	If he be.	If they be.
I have.	We have.	If I have.	If we have.
Thou hast.	You have.	If thou have.	If you have.
He has.	They have.	If he have.	If they have.

The IMPERATIVE is that Mood or form of the Verb by which we urge our claims and wishes upon others. First, upon our inferiors, by command; as, Go! Second, upon our equals, by counsel; as, Honor thy father and thy mother. Third, upon our superiors, by supplication; as, Give us this day our daily bread.

COUNSEL.

Deal with another as you'd have Another deal with you; What you're unwilling to receive, Be sure you never do.

SUPPLICATION.

Thou Being,
All seeing,
O, hear my fervent prayer;
Still take her,
And make her,
Thy most peculiar care!

TENSE is the distinction of time. The great ocean of time, with its restless surface ever in motion, is spread out before us, and lies at our feet. There are waves ever present, lashing the shore where we stand; waves ever receding, and waves ever approaching, making the three grand divisions of time, the Present, Past and Future. These are again very appropriately sub-divided into, the Present, and Present Perfect; the Past, and Past Perfect; and the Future, and Future Perfect.

The PRESENT TENSE expresses what now exists, or is taking place; as, The sun shines; The flowers are growing.

The PRESENT TENSE expresses all periods of time embracing the present moment; as, This hour, this day, this year, this century.

The PRESENT TENSE is used to express all great truths; as, Vice produces misery; Virtue elevates the human race.

The PRESENT TENSE is used to express all habits and customs; as, Edward smokes; Emily dresses neatly; The sun rises every morning and sets every evening.

The Present Tense is used in animated narration to express past events, creating an interest in the speaker's mind, so that the events seem to be passing before him; as, Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Rome in triumph.

What sounds upon the midnight wind Approach so rapidly behind?

It is, it is, the tramp of steeds;

Matilda hears the sound, she speeds,

Seizes upon the leader's rein.

The PRESENT PERFECT Tense is used to represent past events as perfectly finished in present time; as, We have completed the task; My father has purchased the estate.

This Tense is used to express past events whose effects remain to the present; as, Milton has written some noble works; Cicero has written orations. We cannot say, Cicero has written poems, because they have ceased to exist; in this instance we would say, Cicero wrote poems.

This Tense is very comprehensive, and grasps all past time, from the Creation to the present. It matters not how long ago the action may have been performed, the phraseology of the Present Perfect may be used, so long as the time of the action is not named; as, God has created the heavens.

When the time of the event is mentioned, however near it may be to the present, the phraseology must be changed into that of the Past Tense; as, I have seen the Prince a moment ago; should be, I saw the Prince a moment ago.

The use of this Tense is so delicately beautiful in its application to language, that it cannot be used, if the slightest hint is made to any point of past time; as, He has been formerly subject to fits of insanity; should be, He was formerly subject to fits of insanity.

The PAST TENSE is used to express past events; as, David loved Jonathan; The Empress Eugenia was present at the opening of the Suez Canal.

VERBS. 33

This Tense like the Present sometimes denotes custom; as,

Thirty steeds, both fleet and wight, Stood saddled in stable day and night, A hundred more fed free in stall; Such was the custom in Bransome hall.

The PAST PERFECT Tense is used to express actions or events completely finished in past time, before other actions or events took place; as, The ship had sailed before he reached Glasgow; The cars had started when he arrived at the station.

In order to use this Tense correctly, allow the two actions or events to pass before the imagination, and use had to the first one, as in the preceding examples.

The FUTURE Tense represents future actions; as, I

will see you again, and your heart shall rejoice.

This Tense may foretell a future custom; as, The wolf shall dwell with the lamb; The lion shall eat straw like the ox.

The FUTURE PERFECT is used to represent finished actions in future time; as, The fortress when finished will have cost a million.

This Tense represents actions or events limited to a certain point of time in the future, forming as it were a barrier thrown up in the way, past which the performance of the action cannot pass. The action thus arrested is forced to be fully completed, before the limiting point of time is reached; as, The debt will have been paid before the first of June next; The mansion will have been completed before New Year's day.

WILL AND SHALL.

These two words have very different meaning, as may be seen from the following examples: I will be drowned and nobody shall save me; I shall be drowned and nobody will save me.

WILL. When a person resolves for himself, he uses will; as, I will write to Washington to-day.

SHALL. When a person resolves for another, he uses shall, and the use of this word implies an authority in the speaker to enforce the act if necessary: as, You shall pay that bill to-morrow; he shall leave the establishment for his impertinence.

WILL. When a person foretells or simply PREDICTS for another, he uses will; as, He will remove to Philadelphia in the Spring.

SHALL. When a person foretells or simply PREDICTS for himself, he uses shall; as, I shall see my father this afternoon. Brightland writes:

In the First Person simply shall foretells, In will a threat or else a promise dwells. Shall, in the Second and the Third, does threat; Will, simply, then, foretells the future feat.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

The English language is supposed to contain about 8000 Verbs, of which upwards of 7800 are Regular. These form their Past tense and Present Perfect, by a uniform process of adding d or ed to the Present; as, I love, I loved, I have loved; I preach, I preached, I have preached. Those Verbs which do not form their Past tense and Present Perfect by undergoing a similar process are called Irregular; as, I see, I saw, I have seen; He knows, he knew, he has known.

The Irregular Verbs are gradually and steadily growing fewer and fewer every day; and the time will probably come when they can be numbered by the dozen or the score, instead of by the hundred as they are to-

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day. Watch the infant boy as he first lisps our language, catching up its spirit and its tendency, shouting, I seed him do it; I knowed he'd break my pencil; the bee stinged me. Of course the educated ear very properly rejects these offensive intrusions, and more particularly as they are recehoed from the lips of older persons; but, judging from the past, and noting the steadily increasing pressure of the Regular Verbs upon the lessening minority, the fate of the Irregular Verbs is certain.

VERRS.

Once it was quite correct to say, She holp her friend; he clomb the fence; it snew yesterday; he wrought a week. Now we say, She helped her friend; he climbed the fence; it snowed yesterday; he worked a week. So words change, and the knew of the present century, may, in the distant future become as ridiculous to the ear, as the clomb or snew of our ancestors is to us to-day. Mil-

ton wrote:

So clomb the first grand thief into God's fold; So since into his church lewd hirelings climb.

While the Irregular Verbs exist, the true scholar is familiar with every one of them and uses it properly. In all our Text-books of Grammar they stand in three columns, headed and arranged as follows:

IRREGULAR VERBS.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.	
Am,	Was,	Been,	
Arise,	Arose,	Arisen, &c.	

The student, instead of reciting these as school-boys generally do, Present Am, Past was, Past Participle been, should place a Pronoun before each, and slowly repeat it thus: I am, I was, I have been; I arise, I arose, I have arisen; remembering particularly that the Past Participle must ever have an auxiliary before it, as above.

I see no use in grammarians retaining in their list of Irregular Verbs as they do, those which are regular. If regular, let them be used as such; and in this way the long list of Irregular Verbs will be much reduced, and

the science of the English tongue much simplified. Lord Kames, in his Elements of Criticism, highly eulogises Dean Swift, for rejecting, in his time, many of those "ugly" contractions. So, in this day, the person who by counsel or example, will assist in the good work of establishing a uniformity in our language by lessening the number of irregular contractions, and speaking and writing those of them as regular which are regular, will equally deserve well of the present and future generations.

I have carefully selected the following Verbs marked R, from the Irregular Verbs of the Text-books. They are recognized by all grammarians as Regular; and as such, the sooner they are brought into universal usage the better: Acquit, awake; Bereave, bless, blow, burn burst; Catch, clothe, creep, crow, curse; Dare, dive, dream, dress, dwell; Gild, gird; Heat, heave, hew; Kneel, knit; Lean, leap, learn, light; Mean, mow; Pass, pen, plead, prove; Quit; Roast; Saw, seethe, shape, shave, shear, shine, show, smell, sow, spell, spoil, stave, stay, swell; Thrive, throw; Wake, wax, wed, weep, whet, work. By this arrangement, the Irregular Verbs of the language will be reduced to about a hundred.

AUXILIARY VERBS are those which assist others; as, He was invited; and they can be only used before Past Participles under any circumstance; as, He had seen; He has won; We have written.

DEFECTIVE VERBS are those which want some of their principal parts; as,

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.	
Can	Could	Wanting	
May	Might	~	
Must	Must		
Ought	Ought		
Shall	Should		
Will	Would		
\mathbf{Quoth}	\mathbf{Quoth}		

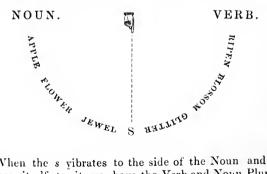
From the preceding list it will be visible that the Defective Verbs have no Participle; and hence there is

not one word of them before which an Auxiliary can be placed. The impropriety then of saying, I had ought, I hadn't ought, is understood; and it is just as ridiculous as if the Auxiliary had been placed before any other Defective Verb in the list; as, He had can; He had must; He had quoth; He had ought. Take away the Auxiliary had, and the expressions will be correct; as, He can do so; He must do so; He ought to do so.

"S."

To secure a simple form of agreement between the Noun and Verb, is an object of much anxiety to many, and it should be one of ardent aspiration to all, and to extemporaneous speakers particularly. As social conversation and public addresses are so generally conducted in the Third Person and Present Tense, the speaker should remember that the Plural of Nouns is formed by adding an s to the singular, and the Plural of Verbs by dropping the s from the singular; consequently in all Syntactical agreement, there is only one s between the two.

Suppose then this s suspended between the Noun and the Verb, to be at liberty to vibrate between them, and pass from one to the other, a most interesting and singular simplicity of agreement is secured in every vibration:



When the s vibrates to the side of the Noun and attaches itself to it, we have the Verb and Noun Plural; and when the s vibrates to the side of the Verb and attaches itself to it, we have the Verb and Noun Singular:

PLURAL.

SINGULAR.

The apples ripen. The flowers blossom. The jewels glitter. The apple ripens.
The flower blossoms.
The jewel glitters.

An equivalent to the Noun in the Plural requires the same form of Verb; as, The boys read correctly. = John and Thomas read correctly. The girls sing sweetly. = Ellen and Lucy sing sweetly. Empires sustain large standing armies. = France and Russia sustain large standing armies.

The only exceptions to the preceding "s" arrangement are found in the three words, Is, was, and has. It does not require much effort to remember, that whenever these words are used, either as Auxiliaries or Principal Verbs, they are changed into are, were, and have in the plural. Hence we say, The bird is singing, the birds are singing; The doctor was called, the doctors were called; The hour has passed pleasantly, the hours have passed pleasantly.

PARTICIPLES are words that participate in the nature of a Noun, the nature of an Adjective, and the nature of a Verb. They are manufactured from the Radical Verb, always found in the Present Infinitive; as, To wonder. Add ing to wonder, and the Present Participle is secured; as, Wondering. Remove the ing, and add ed, and the Past Participle is secured; as, Wondered. Place having before the Past Participle, and the Perfect Participle is secured; as, Having wondered. In this way the Participles may be secured from every Regular Verb in the language.

The difference between the Verb and the Participle is this: the Verb asserts; as, He betrayed his friend. The Participle never asserts; as, Betrayed, he is unhappy.

Participles influence and govern words, in the same manner as the Verbs from which they emanated.

ADVERBS.

Adverbs give character to action; or, an Adverb is a word that qualifies a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb; as, Peter wept bitterly; Harriet is exceedingly clever; John speaks very distinctly. The Adverbs promote brevity, and add much to the beauty of the language, making it concise and elegant:

So still he sat as those who wait, Till judgment speak the doom of fate!

The multifarious and metaphysical divisions of the Adverb beyond those of manner, time, and place may form an exceedingly pleasant pastime to the writer of a Text-book, for school exercises; and they certainly afford a rich opportunity of bewildering the student in his perplexing pilgrimage of parsing and analyzing; but they are of no practical value to the speaker, for his ignorance of them will never cause an error.

know three things: First, that an Adverb is really required; Second, to know how to secure it; and Third, to know where to put it. An Adverb is required when the speaker wishes to give character to action; as, The

canary sings (in what manner?) sweetly. The lady dances (in what manner?) gracefully. These Adverbs were secured by adding ly to the two Adjectives Sweet and Graceful, making them sweetly, gracefully. In this manner four-fifths of the Adverbs of the language may be manufactured by simply adding ly to the Adjective. Hence we have politely, imprudently, quietly, attentively, handsomely, religiously, temperately, sufficiently, ridiculously, particularly, intelligently, and more than a thousand others.

To place the Adverb, the best general rule is,—In Transitive Verbs place the Adverb after the object reached; as, John struck Thomas rashly; the lightning killed the man instantly. In Passive Verbs place the Adverb between the Auxiliary and the Verb; as, Thomas was rashly struck; The man was instantly killed. In Neuter Verbs place the Adverb immediately after the Verb; as, The wind blows furiously; The flowers grow rapidly.

Whenever the complying with this rule would alter the sense or weaken it, it should be promptly suspended, and the Adverb located where the speaker's meaning would be more correctly expressed.

When Adverbs qualify Adjectives or other Adverbs, the qualifying word is always placed before them; as, It is a particularly interesting story; They conducted themselves very improperly.

An Adjective, not an Adverb, should always follow a Neuter Verb when it qualifies the Noun preceding it and not the Verb itself; as, The fields look green; Lizzie appears contented and happy: The wind blows fresh; Prince Arthur looked splendid.

Two NEGATIVES contradicting each other ought to be carefully avoided; as, Death never spared no one; should be, Death never spared any one.

PREPOSITIONS.

Prepositions imply position; or a Preposition is a word that shows the relative position of two or more objects to one another; as, The rose blooms in the garden; The river flows between the hills; The eagle soars above the mountain summits; My sister stands behind me.

Take any two articles, such as a tumbler and a goblet, and change their position in reference to each other; in this way the most of the Prepositions may be manufactured to the eye; as, Above, over, on, in, within, without, out of, before, behind, across, around, down, near, up, from, toward, to, against, under, underneath, &c. The few remaining ones have reference more to words or ideas than to objects.

The Preposition's governing power is limited to the SEVEN WORDS governed by the Transitive Verbs, namely: Me, thee, him, her, us, them, and whom.

When a Preposition stands before a single Pronoun, there is seldom an error made; as, Before me—no one would say, before I_j but when the Preposition is followed by two Pronouns, nothing but the grammatical knowledge of the proper word to be used will save the speaker from erring. How often do we hear from professedly educated persons, Between you and I_j between

you and she! Now these phrases are as grammatically wrong as, Over I, over she; but the ear is deceived by the close association of you with these words, and the error is in a measure concealed by it. The Pronoun YOU is a dangerous companion for any other Pronoun to be connected with, and will assuredly lead to error if not carefully watched and guarded against.

Prepositions have a beautiful use in the language not recognized by grammarians. To understand this, it must be remembered that all Transitive Verbs reach objects; the Passive and Neuter of themselves never do. These, like the drooping arrow of the archer, caught in its falling by a friendly hand and sped on to its mark, receive an impetus from the Prepositions, forming a combination equal to a Transitive Verb; as, Saturn's ring was seen through the telescope; The river flows into the ocean.

ACTOR.	Transitive Verb, or action.	OBJECT.
*	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	*
	Passive.	
*		*
	Neuter.	
*		*
ACTOR.	Transitive Verb, or action.	OBJECT.
*		*
	Passive, with Preposition.	
*		*
	Neuter, with Preposition.	
*	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	*

This feature in the use of the Prepositions, suggests an interesting thought, either morally or philosophically considered, that ALL VERBS ARE TRANSITIVE, or may be so; having one COMMON DESTINY, namely, to reach and influence objects beyond.

- The Preposition should be placed immediately before the Relative it governs; as, With whom do you associate? Not, Who do you associate with?
- Since is very frequently and improperly confused with Ago; as, He called four days since. It ought to be remembered that *since* should be only used in measuring time from the past towards the present, and ago, in measuring from the present towards the past; as, I have not seen him *since* Christmas; He called a week ago.
- In is very improperly used for into to express entrance; as, Robert went in the Common; should be, went into the Common. It should be remembered that being outside the enclosure he would first have to go to the boundary line, and then in, before an entrance could be accomplished; hence the proper use of the beautiful compound word into.
- BETWEEN is frequently and improperly used for among; as, I divided the money between the four boys; should be, among the four boys. Between has reference to two only, and among has reference to any greater number than two; as, He sat between his two sisters; He spent the winter among his country relatives.

CONJUNCTIONS.

Conjunctions unite; or, a Conjunction is a word that connects words or sentences together; as, Milton and Shakspeare were poets; Washington was a true patriot, therefore his country reveres his memory. The words generally used as Conjunctions are: Also, and, as well as, but, yet, nevertheless, nor, notwithstanding, or, neither, if, though, unless, for, since, lest, than, because, inasmuch.

Conjunctions are used to connect together the scattered shreds of language and fit them to convey a connected train of thought. Were there no Conjunctions the act of speaking or writing would be tedious and laborious, as every object or action would then have to be spoken of separately. Mott says:—

The current is often evinced by the straws,

And the course of the wind by the flight of a feather;
So a speaker is known by his ands and his ors,

Those stitches that fasten his patchwork together.

The following sentence will illustrate the poet's idea of stitching:—Italy teems with recollections of every kind; for courage, and wisdom, and power, and arts, and science, and beauty, and music, and desolation, have all made it their dwelling place.

Conjunctions couple the same Cases of Nouns or Pronouns, for a similar reason, that two chained balls must fly in one direction from the mouth of the cannon. Being hinged together by the Conjunction, the Nouns or Pronouns must represent action in concert; Possession in concert, or suffering in concert; as, James and Edward went to New York; Susan's, as well as Matilda's, boots, were purchased on Broadway; George Peabody's donations benefited England and America.

Conjunctions couple the same Moods and Tenses of Verbs; as, Napoleon FOUND Moscow in flames and instantly ordered his troops to extinguish them.

Sometimes Conjunctions connect different Moods and Tenses, but in such cases euphony and perspicuity require the Nominative to be repeated; as, He came and he would not stay; The flowers are now covered beneath the Winter's snow, but when Spring shall arrive, they will bud forth and blossom, delighting the senses with their beauty and fragrance.

CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS are composed of two corresponding words; when the first of these is used, the other should be used also. Examples:—

NEITHER-NOR.

The Hectar, wrapped in everlasting sleep, Shall neither hear thee cry, nor see thee weep.

EITHER-OR.

I will either mail the letter, or forward it by Express.

THOUGH-YET.

Though deep yet clear; though gentle yet not dull.

SO-THAT.

He was so fatigued that he could hardly move.

OTHER, and the Comparative Degree, THAN.

No other than she; He is richer than his brother.

SAME-AS.

Your hat is of the same style as mine.

NOT ONLY-BUT ALSO.

He was not only prudent but also industrious.

AS-SO.

As down in the sunless retreats of the ccean, Sweet flowerets are springing, no mortal can see; So deep in my bosom, the prayer of devotion, Unheard by the world, rises silent to thee.

INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections express emotion; or, an Interjection is a word caused by some sudden and exciting sensation of the mind; as, *Hark!* the bell tolls. *Oh!* make her a grave where the sunbeams rest. *See!* the eclipse is now complete.

Interjections are those words which escape the lips when the mind becomes full to overflowing of uncontrollable emotion; and such words, although having no grammatical connection, are particularly expressive and

give soul to language. Besides the ordinary Interjections, which in many cases are mere sounds, any other part of speech may become an Interjection; as, Nonsense! Shocking! Wonderful! Silence! Welcome!

O, AND OH.

O, is used in direct address; as, O virtue! O sister! and it should always be suggestive of something pleasant, joyful and interesting; as, O, the sunny days of childhood! Oh! is used to express emotions of pain, sorrow, trouble, or suffering of some kind, requiring the exclamation point next it; and it may or may not, as the writer wishes, have another at the end of the sentence; as, Oh! what untold sorrows were created by the late war!

Oh! had your fate been joined to mine,
As once this pledge appeared the token;
These follies had not then been mine,
My early vows had not been broken.—Byron.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

The first word of every distinct sentence should begin with a capital letter; as, Simple pleasures give the highest enjoyment. The first word of every line in Poetry should begin with a capital; as,

> Of heaven if thou would'st reach a gleam, On humblest object fix thy eyes; So travelers, in a picturing stream, Look down, indeed, but see the skies.

The following words always require capital letters: Proper Nouns and titles of honor; as, Ottawa; Sir Walter Scott; Judge Wilkinson. Adjectives derived from names of places; as, American, Spanish, Prussian. The first word of a direct quotation when it forms a complete sentence; as, Virgil says, "Labor conquers all." The Pronoun I, and the Interjection O. The names of the days of the week; as, Sunday, Monday. The names of the months of the year; as, January, February, March. Every appellation of Deity; as, God, Almighty, Jehovah. Every Noun and principal word in the title of books; as, Gibbon's Rise and Fall of the Roman Empire. Common Nouns when personified; as,

Oh! sacred Star of evening, tell
In what unseen celestial sphere,
Those spirits of the perfect dwell
Too pure to rest in sadness here.

Any other word that is of particular importance to the writer may begin with a capital; but the fewer of these the better.

PUNCTUATION.

The COMMA(,) is used when the sense requires a slight natural pause; as, To do good, if we have the opportunity, is our duty, and should be our happiness.

The Semicolon (;) marks a longer pause than the Comma, and separates clauses less closely connected; as, He that loveth pleasure shall be a poor man; he that

loveth wine and oil shall not be rich.

The Colon (:) is used when the preceding part of a sentence is complete in sense and construction, and the following part is some remark naturally arising from it, given as explanation; as, Accuracy, promptness and integrity are necessary in all business transactions: there is no true success without them. The colon is also used before examples or quotations; as, There are four seasons: Spring, Summer, Autumn, Winter. The last words of an eminent divine were: "The best of all is, God is with us."

The Period (.) is used at the close of a sentence; as, The fairest flowers are the first to fade. The Period is also used after abbreviations; as, The oration was de-

livered by Rev. H. W. Beecher.

The Point of Interrogation (?) is placed after every direct and complete question; as, How old is the President? When a question is only said to be asked, the note of Interrogation is not used; as, The Governor General of Canada asked Prince Arthur, how he liked the Americans.

The Point of Exclamation (!) is used after expressions of sudden emotion of any kind; as, Eternity!

thou pleasing, dreadful thought.

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